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ABSTRACT

One of 52 theoretical papers on school crime and its relation to poverty, this chapter examines the relationship between the major goal of affective educational programs--improved student self-esteem--and school crime. The author believes that by focusing on the whole person not just the cognitive domain, schools can have an impact on the school crime problem. The theory and ground rules of two well-known affective education programs, Schools Without Failure and Values Clarification, are presented with examples and research data. (Author/MLF)

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AFFECTIVE EDUCATION: A POSITIVE APPROACH TO SCHOOL CRIME

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ABSTRACT

An examination is made of the relationship between the major goal of affective educational programs -- improved student self-esteem -- and school crime. The author believes that by focusing on the whole person, not just the cognitive domain, schools can have an impact on the school crime problem. The theory and ground rules of two well-known affective education programs, Schools Without Failure and Values Clarification, are presented with examples and research.

Introduction

Learning is usually divided into three domains: (1) cognitive, describing thinking or intellectual activities; (2) affective, describing feelings and attitudes; and (3) psychomotor, describing physical or action activities. Education should ideally seek to teach in all three domains. Schools, however, have traditionally placed greater value and emphasis on cognitive and psychomotor rather than affective skills, activity, and achievement. One of the reasons for this is that cognitive and psychomotor objectives can easily be measured, whereas assessing the accomplishment of affective objectives has proven more difficult. However, some techniques for assessing affective education have been developed by Bloom, Krathwohl, and Masia (1964) and Forsyth and Gammel (1974).

The frequently heard but seldom resolved debate over teaching either facts or feelings is a futile one -- both are essential to learning. As Charles Silberman (1970) put it, "Schools can be humane and still educate well. They can be genuinely concerned with gaiety and joy and individual growth and fulfillment without sacrificing concern for intellectual discipline and development"

(p. 208). The imbalance usually seen in schools is well expressed by Terry Borton (1969):

> There are two sections to almost every school's statement of educational objectives -- one for real and one for show. The first, the real one, talks about academic excellence, subject mastery, and getting into college or a job. The other discusses the humane purpose of the school -- values, feelings, personal growth, the full and happy life. It is included because everyone knows that it is important, and that it ought to be central to the life of the school. But it is only for show. (p.56)

By not focusing on the affective development of students, schools may have indirectly contributed to the school crime problem. I believe that affective education philosophies and programs can reduce the school crime problem in this country by improving student self-esteem. Research evidence supporting affective education's potential for reducing the problem will be presented later. Before looking more closely at the relationship between programs attempting to improve student self-esteem and school crime, a brief review of affective education will be made.

Affective Education

Affective education focuses on people's feelings, beliefs, attitudes, relationships, and values. Students have been asking for, and in many cases demanding, a curriculum that is relevant -- one that includes emotions and emotional issues. Borton (1969) refers to this type of curriculum as a curriculum of concerns. Others have referred to it as the "hidden curriculum," the one that is caught, not taught (Kelley, 1965). What are some components of a relevant school curriculum? Effective communication is one. As Demak, Kaminsky, and Paskal (1973) put it:

> Communication is basic to human understanding in an interpersonal relationship. The way we communicate in large part determines the nature and degree of interpersonal conflicts and how we relate to other people.
>
> Effective communication implies the open expression of ideas, opinions, and concerns in an environment free from defense mechanisms. In such an atmosphere, people are more willing to consider alternatives, to try the untried, and to take responsibility for their actions.

Developing skills in problem solving and decision making is another component. Students are confronted

with choices in every aspect of their lives. Without opportunities to test out their thinking in a relatively safe environment such as school, they are likely to let others, particularly their peers, make decisions for them.

A third component of a relevant school curriculum is an emphasis on process as well as task. This is another way of saying that those who are involved (in a classroom, in a teacher's meeting) are interested not only in what gets done or not (the task or product), but also in why and how (the process). Typical questions reflecting the process focus include: Is everyone participating? Do we have (need) a leader? Who wants to (can) do what? and How is the decision(s) being made?

Another component of a relevant school curriculum is an emphasis on improving student self-esteem. This will be explored in more detail in the next section.

Self Esteem

Self-esteem or self-concept refers to the ways a person usually sees him/herself. It is the way he/she feels about him/herself. Self-concept is learned. Arthur Combs (1962) points out that

> People *learn* who they are and what they are from the ways in which they have been treated by those who surround them in the process of their growing up. People discover their self-concepts from the kinds of experiences they have had with life; not from telling, but from experience. People develop feelings that they are liked, wanted, acceptable and able from *having been* liked, wanted, accepted and from *having been* successful. (p. 53)

In schools, the opportunities for being liked, wanted, accepted, and successful are greatest for students at the elementary school level. As youngsters move into the junior and senior high schools, greater emphasis is placed on academic achievement, social and interpersonal relationships, and adherence to rules and regulations -- all potential areas of stress and possible failure. Enhancing self-esteem of students at all grade levels can better enable them to cope with this stress. Mecca (1976) points out that

> self-esteem is the single most effective coping tool one has in dealing with stress. Those lacking self-esteem ... are more inclined to act out adversely in a situation they are unable to cope with. This acting out may manifest itself in many forms, some as overt as drug abuse, alcohol abuse,

criminality ... (p.23)

This has been borne out by a great deal of research, notably that of Gold and Mann (1972). Their data reveal that a significant motivation for delinquency is to defend against a derogated self-image -- that youth with poor self-images tend to participate in delinquent/criminal activities as a means of enhancing self-esteem. Similar results were obtained by Samuels and Samuels (1974) in a study of drug abuse. They reported that 75 percent of their subjects considered low self-concept a cause of their turning to drugs. Others, such as Purkey (1970), have pointed out the relationship between self-concept and academic achievement. After a review of related research, Purkey concludes that "enhancing the self-concept is a vital influence in improving academic performance" (p. 27).

In short, people with poor self-images -- those who think of themselves as unliked, unwanted, unimportant, and unworthy -- are the ones who are likely to experience difficulty in school and eventually fill our jails and other institutions. On the other hand, because self-concept is learned, it can be taught in school. Schools and teachers can and do have an important role to play in

teaching a positive self-image. And one way they can do so is identified by Combs (1962): "To produce a positive self, it is necessary to provide experiences that teach individuals they are positive people" (p. 53). The following sections describe two affective education programs that interested teachers, after appropriate in-service training, can use in their classrooms.

Glasser's Schools Without Failure

Psychiatrist William Glasser has taken many of the theories from his previous works, most notably Reality Therapy (1965), and applied them to the educational setting. The resulting program is known as Schools Without Failure, based in large part on his book of the same title (1969).

In his earlier work, Glasser postulates that one of the major needs of people is the need for self-worth. He sees schools as being one of two places where a person's feeling of self-worth can be gained, the other being the home. In Schools Without Failure, Glasser indicates his belief that schools have not done a good job in this regard: that they have tended unnecessarily to reinforce the negative self-image of students. He finds the major

problem of schools to be one of "the current philosophy of education, which emphasizes failure ... (and) prevents the student from developing a feeling of self-worth" (p. 25). It is important to elaborate on Glasser's belief that schools should never fail students -- since it is based on his own definition of the word fail. Failure is the punishment that teachers impose upon nonsuccess in school -- punishment that includes labeling the student as somehow evil and unworthy. But this punishment, says Glasser, is unnecessarily self-defeating because it lowers self-esteem.

This does not mean that nonsuccess should be ignored or glossed over; recognizing reality includes recognizing nonsuccess. Thus, Glasser does not advocate automatic promotion. If a student has not succeeded in a course, he should be given an incomplete and allowed either to take the course over or to make up deficiencies.

In cases of misbehavior, Glasser again applies his theory of Reality Therapy:

> The teacher must ask, "What are you doing?" If she is warm and personal, if she deals with the present and does not throw the child's past misdeeds in his face, he will almost always reply honestly and tell what he is doing. The teacher must then ask, in words appropriate to the age of

> the child and to the situation, whether his behavior is helping him, her, the class, or the school. If the child says, "No, what I am doing is not helping," the teacher must then ask the child what he could do that is different. This is exactly the opposite of what happens in almost all schools and homes when a child misbehaves. Ordinarily, the teacher or parent tells the child that he is doing wrong and that if he doesn't change, he'll be punished. This traditional but ineffective approach removes the responsibility for his bad behavior from the child. The teacher makes the judgment and enforces the punishment; the child has little responsibility for what happens. (p.21)

As important as the idea of student responsibility for learning and behavior is Glasser's major technique, the classroom meeting. There are three kinds of classroom meetings; they differ in their purposes and in the nature of the topics discussed.

The simplest is the open-ended meeting, in which the teacher introduces a topic he believes the students will find interesting and easy to discuss. The discussion can move on to other topics and may also be related to the curriculum. An important difference between the open-ended meeting and an ordinary class discussion is that the teacher is not specifically looking for factual

answers. The purpose of the meeting is to stimulate student thinking and to help develop involvement between the students and the teacher.

The second type of meeting is the educational-diagnostic meeting. The word diagnostic here refers to curriculum diagnosis, not psychological diagnosis. The meeting is always, therefore, directly related to what the class is studying. The purpose is to assess how well a particular concept has been understood or to help evaluate classroom activities. The teacher can then, as a result of this meeting, use the discussion in his/her planning.

The most difficult meeting to run is the problem-sovling meeting. The topic is an actual problem facing students, either individually or as a class. The purpose of the meeting is to solve the problem (although the solution to certain problems may be to air them thoroughly during the discussion, rather than to come up with an exact answer). Absent from the discussion (by design) are two typical responses to problems -- fault finding and punishment.

There are several ground rules for the meetings, regardless of type. The teacher and all the students sit in a tight circle, with the teacher sitting in a

different place each day. This allows the teacher to be close at one time or another to each student. During the meetings, the teacher remains nonjudgmental about student ideas and participation (or lack of it). If they are being evaluated, students will tend not to speak up or will give the teacher what they think the teacher wants to hear. Factual errors, therefore, are allowed to stand uncorrected. The meetings, however, are not allowed to degenerate into gripe or rap sessions. Also, sarcastic comments about other students and their responses are forbidden; students must respect the ideas of others, even if they disagree with them. Finally, the meetings are designed to be a regular part of the school program. This means that they should be held at least twice a week or as often as once a day. It also means that the meeting can be incorporated into the subject matter (for example, holding the meeting in French). The actual frequency of the meetings depends on need as well as the grade level. Glasse suggests that the duration of the classroom meetings should vary in the following manner: shorter (10-30 minutes) for students in elementary school and longer (20-60 minutes) for secondary school students.

Research

(1) In 1972, the New Castle, Pennsylvania, school district began a two-year study of the effects of Glasser training in elementary schools (Masters, Laverty, & Hayes, 1975). In this study, 10 elementary schools were matched for size, socioeconomic background of parents, and past academic achievement of students and randomly divided into two groups. The schools in one group were given no Glasser training during the first year, but did receive training the second year. Schools in the other group received training during both years.

At the end of the two years, there were some indications that the program had positive effects on students' attitudes toward school and learning and that students of Glasser-trained teachers held their own in achievement. I think that if the study had continued an improvement in academic achievement probably would have been noted. Most significant, however, is the fact that in both years of the study, the Schools Without Failure schools reduced their disciplinary referrals greatly.

(2) In a junior high school in Wayne County, Michigan, which participated in a Schools Without Failure program for two years, a small but statistically

significant decrease in the absentee rate occurred, even though only 40 percent of the school's staff was involved in the program ("Whittier Discipline Model," 1966-1977). Although absenteeism is not an altogether reliable measure of present or future delinquency, a strong correlation between the two does exist.

(3) The Madison, Wisconsin, public schools began utilizing the Schools Without Failure program in the 1970-71 school year. By the 1972-73 school year, a total of 700 professionals in that school district had been trained in Schools Without Failure workshops. In discussing the impact this program has had, Jensen (1973) reports: (a) truancy and vandalism diminished; (b) disruptions and disturbances diminished; and (c) fighting diminished.

Values Clarification

Values clarification is based on the theory of Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966). Whereas in the past, peoples' values were fairly well defined, recent developments in mass communication, increased mobility, and so on, have resulted in a great deal of confusion. Raths et al. point out that

> This means that it is probably increasingly difficult for the growing child to develop clear values on his own. There is so much confusion surrounding him and so little attention paid to the child's dilemma, so few persons with the time and patience to listen to him and to help him to untangle some of the confusion, that he simply remains without sufficient clarity of beliefs or purpose. (p. 22)

This confusion leads, according to the theory, to certain patterns of behavior that occur when people are unclear about themselves in relation to society. These behaviors include apathy, flightiness, uncertainty, inconsistency, overconformity, overdissension, and frequently underachievement. The method suggested for improving these behavior patterns (and raising self-esteem at the same time) is to use the following seven-step valuing process:

Choosing:	1.	Freely
	2.	From among alternatives
	3.	After thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative
Prizing:	4.	A choice that we are happy with
	5.	Willingness to affirm our choice publicly

Acting:

6. Doing something about our choice
7. Repeating the actions over time in similar circumstances

This process also serves to establish Raths et al.'s definition of a value: unless something meets all seven of these criteria, it is not called a value. The values clarification approach does not suggest a particular set of values to be taught to students, but rather views the teacher as helping students use the valuing process.

A basic approach to helping students define and explore their values is the clarifying response: a question or statement intended to help raise questions in the mind of the student, to help the student clarify feelings, beliefs, or attitudes, or to draw a student into a discussion. Two examples are "Was it a hard decision?" and "Is this a choice you really prize?" Regardless of the actual clarifying response used, the objective is to use it in a positive, accepting manner.

A similar atmosphere is sought when any of the values clarification activities or strategies are being used. Some of the ground rules that seek to enhance a warm, open climate include: there are no right or wrong answers; there are no judges or juries; no killer statements are allowed; and everyone has the right to pass (not

participate). When these ground rules are adhered to, students are usually eager to take part. In such an atmosphere, feelings are made legitimate and clarified for students, while the activities frequently suggest a variety of alternative behaviors which they can use to express them.

Each values clarification activity relates to one of the seven steps in the valuing process. The activities exist at all grade levels and can be incorporated into almost any subject matter. One example is the rank-order strategy. In a class studying history, for example, a teacher might ask the students to rank-order the importance of World War I, World War II, and the Vietnam War. The teacher would write the three choices on the blackboard, call for volunteers to respond, and write the various volunteers' rankings next to each war. This and other values clarification activities not only personalize learning, but also encourage the expression of beliefs, attitudes, feelings, and values in the non-threatening, safe environment that has been created. It further gives students the opportunity to learn and respect the ideas and opinions of others. In this type of atmosphere, student interest, confidence, and self-

esteem are likely to increase.

Another values clarification strategy is the values continuum. Two polar positions on an issue are written on the blackboard with a line drawn between them (for example, the Federal government should control everything a school does vs. the Federal government should control nothing a school does). The students are then asked to identify other positions on the issue, and place them somewhere on the continuum, in relationship to the poles and to positions already listed. In addition to identifying alternatives, thus having students move beyond either/or thinking, the class will usually discuss the consequences of each alternative.

Research

(1) Values clarification techniques were used in Operation Future: A Kings-Tulare Counties Pilot Project in the Prevention and Rehabilitation of Delinquency and Drug Abuse, 1974.[1] During this study, a questionnaire

[1] Prepared by the Community Organization Institute, Phoenix, Arizona. Available from: Pennant Educational Materials, 4680 Alvarado Canyon Road, San Diego, Cal. 92120

on use of various nonprescribed drugs and self-perceptions was given to 851 fifth through tenth graders, two groups of pregnant minors, two church groups, and 65 youth on probation. The responses indicated that values clarification appeared to result in a decline in drug use among older students and that without the use of the values clarification process (as utilized by teachers participating in the project) social adjustment of students declined significantly. The social skills measured were social standards, antisocial tendencies, school relations, social skills, family relations, and community relations.

(2) Thomas Covault (1975) measured the effect of values clarification strategies on students. Four classes of fifth-grade students, two experimental and two control classes, were randomly selected. The students in the two experimental classes (N=55) experienced 11 one-hour sessions of values clarification led by the investigator. The students in the two control classes (N=48) experienced 11 one-hour sessions of physical education also led by the investigator. The students who received values clarification, as compared to the controls, improved in self-concept as measured by the

Sears Self-Concept Scale; improved in positive attitude toward teaching; and improved in initiation and self-direction of classroom activities.

Conclusion

School crime is a major concern of our society. School administrators and other educational personnel are under considerable pressure to "do something" about tHis and other problems. Many educational programs, innovations, and panaceas have come and gone with little or no lasting impact, leaving many educators confused, angry, and discouraged. One alternative is an emphasis on blending cognitive and affective learning, based on some things that are known. One is that how a person feels generally controls how that person acts or behaves. We know also that interest and work in affective education, the part of education dealing with feelings, is approaching an all-time high as more and more people are encouraged by what they have seen or heard about this approach. Third, we could not separate affective learning from cognitive learning even if we desired to do so; they are truly inseparable. Finally, we know that in order for schools to be humane and educate well, change must occur in the structure, content, and objectives of education. Silberman,

1970). It is my belief and that of others (Van Avery, 1975) that a curriculum built around humane encounters can significantly change schools and many of the problems related to schools. The affective education philosophies and programs that have been described here are a beginning step in that direction.

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